DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 160 813 CE 017 916

AUTHOR	Scheresky, Ruth P.
TITLE	Elementary School Children's Views of Occupational Roles. Volume III, Issue III.
INSTITUTION	Iowa State Univ. of Science and Technology, Ames. Research Inst. for Studies in Education.
PUB DATE	May 78
NOTE	36p.; Not available in hard copy due to poor print quality of original document
AVAILABLE FROM	Research Institute for Studies in Education, College of Education, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa 50011
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Age Differences; Birth Order; *Childhood Attitudes; Elementary Education; *Occupations; One Parent Family; Parent Influence; Rural Urban Differences; Sex Differences; *Sex Role; *Sex Stereotypes; Working Parents

ABSTRACT

A study was undertaken to explore the sex stereotypic views that children hold of occupational roles and to determine differences in such attitudes among ages, between boys and girls, between children from one-parent and two-parent families, between children whose mother may or may not be employed outside the home, and in relation to the child's placement in the family. A random sample was chosen of 300 children in central Iowa, consisting of twenty-five boys and twenty-five girls at each of the following age levels: six, eight, and ten; and at each of the location factors: rural and suburban. To gather the data, informal personal interviews were conducted using the Occupational Role Stereotype Scale, an instrument comprised of photographs of occupational roles and a questionnaire, and designed to compare views of each individual to the traditional stereotypic views. The following conclusions were drawn from an analysis of the data: (1) children perceive occupations as the role of one sex or the other according to traditional stereotypes; (2) the older the children the more open they are to accepting less sex-typed roles in occupations; and (3) variables of the mother's employment outside the home, one- or two-parent families, sibling order, and location (whether rural or suburban) have no significant effect on children's acceptance of sex-typed occupational roles. An implication of this study is that elementary schools can and should play an influential role in reducing children's stereotypic conceptions. (ELG)

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ED160813

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN'S VIEWS OF OCCUPATIONAL ROLES

By
Ruth F. Scheresky

Volume III, Issue III

E 017916

Available from:
Research Institute for Studies in Education
College of Education
Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa 50011

May 1978

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN'S VIEWS OF OCCUPATIONAL ROLES

Research Report

by

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October 6, 1977

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PREFACE

The Research Institute for Studies in Education encourages and assists College of Education faculty in research endeavors. By way of it's Released Time for Research Program, RISE and the department in the College provide faculty with time and some support to engage in research which is meaningful to the faculty member, the department, and the College generally. Very often this research is initiation for research on a wider and more comprehensive scale.

The results and findings of faculty research are of interest to other faculty in the department and the College. As a means of disseminating this information throughout the College and University, RISE sets forth the RISE Reports.

Volume III of RISE Reports contains the faculty reports of research done with some RISE Released Time Support during 1977-78. Research reported during this period is presented in the following issues:

Issue I Media and Attitudes: A Bibliography of the Twenty Five Years of Audio Visual Communication Review by Michael Simonson, Pamela Thies, and Georgeann Burch (Department of Secondary Education)

Issue II A Survey of the Status of Education for Gifted Elementary Children in the State of Iowa by Joan Brieter (Department of Elementary Education)

Issue III Elementary School Children's Views of Occupational Roles by Ruth Scheresky (Department of Elementary Education)

Issue IV A Sixteen Item Trait Anxiety Scale for Children

and

Children, Psychological Sweating, Teaching Approaches and Anxiety by Allan A. Rupnow (Department of Physical Education

It is hoped that these presentations will be informing and of interest to all College of Education faculty. We especially hope this evidence of research will be inspiring to those who are initiating their first faculty research endeavor.

William A. Hunter, Director
Research Institute for Studies in Education

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SECTION I

INTRODUCTION

The subject of this research is children's views of occupational roles that are traditionally stereotyped by society. Specifically, the interest is in exploring the differences among the views of children as they vary with age, gender, and location regarding their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women.

Because the school is an important socializing agent of the child, the study can help the educator to be aware of the degree of stereotyping that the elementary school child is doing and, if necessary, changes can be made in the learning environment to avoid the continuance of sex-role stereotyping.

Background

Prejudice, in its most common usage, is defined as "an unfavorable ethnic attitude" (Dictionary of the Social Sciences, 1964; Handbook of Social Psychology, 1954). This core definition, however, is frequently qualified. Additional selected definitions (Ehrlich, 1973, pp. 3, 4) include:

> COOPER and MCGAUGH (1963): Prejudices are social attitudes which are developed before, in lieu of, or despite objective evidence.

KLINEBERG (1954): A feeling or response to persons or things which is prior to, and therefore not based upon, actual experience. It may be either positive or negative, and it may be directed to any one of a large variety of objects. . . .

MCDONAGH and RICHARDS (1953): Preconceived judgments toward persons, beliefs, or objects. . . .

SIMPSON and YINGER (1965): An emotional, rigid attitude . . . toward a group of people. . . .

WESTIE (1964): Prejudice (is) . . . a facet of the normative system of culture. Prejudice is built into the culture in the form of normative precepts. . . which define the ways in which members of the group ought to behave in relation to the members of selected outgroups.

YOUNG and MACK (1962): Culturally predetermined, biased attitude toward or conception of a person or group.

The bias of derogation of the subject is interwoven in these qualifications. Prejudiced persons are viewed as generalizing incorrectly, being emotional, irrational, and rigid. They have adopted preconceived societal norms of disparagement and hostility toward selected others.

Attitude, as defined by Ehrlich (1973, p. 4) "is an interrelated set of propositions about an object or class of objects which are organized around cognitive, behavioral, and affective dimensions." A body of fundamental beliefs about the attitude object is represented by the set of propositions that comprise an attitude. The attitude object has no boundary. A person may have an attitude about an idea, a physical object, another person, him/herself, an event, or a category of persons. Attitudes toward the mentally retarded, the atheist, scientists, or the physically disabled are no different from attitudes toward ethnic groups.

The cognitive dimensions of prejudice have been traditionally subsumed under the singular label "stereotypes." "Stereotypes" are a set of beliefs and disbeliefs about any group of people. The terms stereotypic behavior and, the more conventional, stereotyping refer to the structuring of the elements of belief statements about groups of people (Ehrlich, p. 20).

Grouping and classification can be done and possibly is done of all social objects. Shared classification of social objects representing both individual and societal responses may be termed social categories. They represent classifications of people based on distinctive, easily recognized, and easily articulated criteria shared by members of society.

To establish a social object as a member of social category, the process involves minimizing its individual differences and maximizing its categorical properties. To categorize a social object implies that the criterial similarities are more important for that object and like objects than any differences among them. The use of social categories narrows the amount of information that a person needs to have about someone in order to act. Paradoxically, while categorization narrows the amount of information necessary for action, it also expands the scope of information about an object (Ehrlich, p. 38).

Persons associated with the major social categories in a society are expected to comply with the behavioral norms. In our Western, industrialized society, Ehrlich (p. 64) states these cat-

egories include age, sex, race, class (occupation, education, income), religion, nationality, ideology (particularly political, economic, and religious beliefs), and some aspects of personal appearance and interpersonal qualities.

The most basic category in which human beings, regardless of race, creed, or culture, are placed is the category of sex: male or female (McCandless, 1967, p. 448). Sexual identity appears to be socially defined and its major qualities are imprinted at a quite early age (Stoll, 1973, p. 7). The psychological and behavioral differences associated with the obvious biological differences between boys and girls and men and women are perhaps even more important for individual adjustment than are the biological differences.

To be genuinely happy, in almost all cultures it is essential that biological maleness or femaleness be accompanied by psychological and social maleness or femaleness (McCandless, p. 448). Psychological and social maleness or femaleness does not allow for the traditional stereotypic views of maleness and femaleness.

In this "age of antidiscrimination agencies and affirmative action programs" (Healy & Lund, 1974, p. 36), schools are under attack for promoting sexism. Public education plays a substantial role in sexual stereotyping. Many writers believe the school has become one of the major elements in the socialization of American children (Gottlieb, 1973, p. 17). One of the functions of the schools is socialization into age-sex roles (Denzin, 1973, p. 134).

It is true schools reflect the society they serve. Schools function to reinforce the sexual stereotypes that children have been taught by their parents, friends, and the mass culture we live in (Howe, 1971, p. 76).

Levy and Stacey (1973, p. 105) stated that the elementary school promotes sex stereotyping through various aspects of the curriculum, the organization of the classroom, the structure of the school, teacher behavior with children, and the extra curricular milieu. The authors further claimed:

> Schools exist in part to perpetuate various roles which maintain our sexist society. . . schools do "make a difference" in that they remain effective agents of social control, perpetuating the existing class, racial, and sexual divisions in our society.

Thus, in fact, it can be assumed that through development and education a child learns broadening concepts of what one can accept in regard to the role of men and of women.

Data resulting from a study (Schoresky, 1975) of 270 children, six, eight, and ten years old, in south-central Michigan, indicated the degree of stereotyping was high among all subjects. Children perceived occupations as the role of one sex or the other according to traditional stereotypic views. These findings substantiate the results of Beuf's (1974) study on sex-role perception of children, ages 3 to 6 years. The data in Beuf's investigation indicated that, although the Women's Liberation Movement has attracted much attention, children are still learning a sex-typed role structure, especially in the occupational sphere.

The elementary school is the first setting, beyond the family, with which children have contact during the years when basic attitudes, perceptions, and skills are being developed. "All human beings (children) should enjoy the rights that are theirs by virtue of their being human, and not one iota of their rights should ever be abridged on the ground of sex. . ." (Montagu, 1968, p. 209). Schools can and should be a powerful inluence in the elimination of sex stereotyping in our culture.

Purpose of the Study

The present research was undertaken to explore the differences among the stereotypic views of children: among ages, between boys and girls, between children in rural and suburban schools, between children from one-parent and two-parent families, between children whose mother may or may not be employed outside the home, and views in relation to the child's placement in the family.

Importance of the Study

The educational system remains a primary agent for socialization, reflecting the society it serves (Howe, p. 77). Burton (1974, p. 1) stated, "A basic tenet of our society is that all Americans should have equal opportunity to pursue interests, develop talents and grow to full potential." In our society a conflict occurs between the ideal the society endorses and the actual practice of the society regarding this equality. Burton continued,

"It becomes the duty of the school to hold true to the basic ideal, to cease reflecting deviations, and to take positive steps to correct and to reshape the 'reality'."

A study of stereotypic views of children may provide a basis for evaluating various aspects of the educational system so that the opportunity to become a fully developed human being can be a reality to all.

Children become more aware of occupations as they grow older. This study may reveal whether older children are more or less biased regarding sex role stereotyping of occupations than are younger children. An evaluation of the educational process may give an insight as to the factors that may contribute to sex role stereotyping at the various age levels or a lack of sex role stereotyping.

Results may indicate whether the influence of rural and suburban environments is a factor in the child's sex-role socialization process.

The gender of the child is another factor to consider when studying the views of sex roles in occupations. Both boys and girls must be aware of the opportunities available to them as human beings not to be limited by sex. The study can have implications regarding career education programs in the school curriculum.

Statement of the Problem

The research described here addressed the following questions: Does age level determine to some degree the acceptance of certain occupational roles for both sexes? Are boys or girls more predisposed to stereotype occupational roles according to sex? Do the rural and suburban factors make for differences in viewing the sexes in certain roles? Is there a difference between children from one-parent families and children from two-parent families and their views of occupational roles for both sexes? Does the mother's employment or non-employment outside the home make for any difference in children's views of occupational roles? Is there a relationship regarding the child's placement in the family and the acceptance of roles for men and for women?

The Population and Sample

The sampled population for the research included school districts representing the location factor: rural and suburban in central Iowa. A stratified random sample was taken to generate groups of twenty-five boys and twenty-five girls at the ages of six, eight, and ten years at each of the locations: rural and suburban. The grade levels used were first, third, and fifth grades. The total number in the sample was 300 children.

Definitions of Terms

Ages of children: Six year olds are those children whose sixth birthday fell between December 1, 1975, and November 30, 1976,

inclusive; eight year olds are those children whose eighth birthday fell between December 1, 1975, and November 30, 1976, inclusive; ten year olds are those children whose tenth birthday fell between December 1, 1975, and November 30, 1976, inclusive.

Urbanized area: The area consisting of a central city, or cities, and the surrounding closely settled territory (Dictionary of Economic and Statistical Terms, 1972).

Central city: A city of 50,000 inhabitants or more (Dictionary of Economic and Statistical Terms), consisting of the population of the city named in the title of the urbanized area; central city is not synonymous with the "inner city" concept.

Suburban: The surrounding closely settled territory of a central city in an urbanized area.

Rural: That area not included in an urbanized area; can consist of "a farm and/or non-farm population" (Dictionary of Economic and Statistical Terms).

Suburban school: A school in a school district located in a suburban area.

Rural school: A school in a school district located in a non-urban area.

Sampled population: The six, eight, and ten year olds in the selected schools; "it is the population for strict statistical inference" (Slakter, 1972, p. 50).

Target population: The group to which a generalization is made, or "the primary population of interest" (Slakter); the six, eight, and ten year olds in central Iowa.

Stratified random sample: Sample randomly drawn from each stratum or subpopulation (Sax, 1968, p. 135).

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference among the group mean scores of the six year old, eight year old, and ten year old children in their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of boys and of girls in their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of children from rural and suburban schools in their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of children from one-parent families and children from two-parent families and their acceptance of occupational roles for both sexes as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of children with mothers employed and children

with mothers not employed outside the home and their acceptance of occupational roles as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference among the group mean scores of children and sibling order and their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

Summary

In this section, a brief introduction to the study was made; the background, purpose, and importance of the study were discussed; and the specific problem to be addressed by the study was defined. The sample and definition of terms were presented and the hypotheses of interest were then specified.

The design of the study, including the sample, methodology, and testable hypotheses, is presented in the following section. The final section includes the analysis and discussion of the research data.

SECTION II

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

In this section, the description of the sample, the methodology, the design of the research, and the testable hypotheses are discussed.

Sample

School districts representing the rural and suburban location factor were selected for the study. The settings are in central Iowa. A stratified random sample was used to generate groups containing an equal number of boys and girls at the ages of six, eight, and ten years. The total number in the sample was 300 children. Twenty-five boys and twenty-five girls were included at each of the age levels: six, eight, and ten years; and at each of the location factors: rural and suburban.

Permission was granted by the schools and parents of sample children to participate in the study. In a small number of cases in which letters were not returned or permission was not granted, replacements for the children were randomly selected.

Methodology

Personal interviews were used as the data gathering method for the study. The interview involved the use of the instrument,

Occupational Role Stereotype Scale (ORSS), comprised of photographs of occupational roles and a questionnaire used in an informal approach during the interview.

The ORSS includes photographical settings of eighteen occupations which are traditionally stereotyped in society as either being a female or a male role. As a validation procedure, seventy-eight adult graduate students were used as a try-out group to determine if they agreed about how each of the occupations is stereotyped in society. The results indicated strong agreement on how the roles are normally stereotyped. The reliability of the instrument measures 0.70.[1]

The black and white photographs portraying the occupational settings do not include any person(s) in the settings with the exception of the kindergarten classroom. The kindergarten scene includes children involved in various activities; however, the teacher figure is not present. Thus, the child is not influenced by the presence of an adult in the photographic setting.

For each occupational setting, an accompanying photographic silhouette pose of a male and a female model is used. The silhouettes are partially lighted, above-the-waist photographs. The

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[1]To determine theinternal consistency reliability in the instrument measure, Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha Formula, a generalization of the Kuder-Richardson Formula, KR-20, was employed.

same female and male models in different poses are used for the eighteen occupations, with appropriate attire for each occupation represented.

The instrument is designed to compare the views of each individual to the traditional stereotypic views. The measure has three choices--male, female, or both--for each occupation. Responses are scored according to the traditional views of the occupational roles as obtained by the validation procedure. Responses are given a score of "1" and "0." A stereotypic response receives a score of "1"; a response of either the opposite sex choice of the stereotypic answer or the answer "both" receives a score of "0." The sum of 18 is the stereotyped score. The total score of stereotyped answers can be interpreted as degree of stereotying--the higher the score, the more stereotyped the subject.

Design

An analysis of variance and a series of t tests for independent groups were used to analyze the research data.

Testable Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference among the group mean scores of the six year old, eight year old, and ten year old children in their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of boys and of girls in their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of children from rural and suburban schools in their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of children from one-parent families and children from two-parent families and their acceptance of occupational roles for both sexes as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of children with mothers employed and children with mothers not employed outside the home and their acceptance of occupational roles as measured by the ORSS.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference among the group mean scores of children and sibling order and their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

SECTION III

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH DATA

In this section the data relevant to each hypothesis will be presented, analyzed, and briefly discussed. A 2 x 3 x 2 (location x age x sex) analysis of variance was the method employed to analyze the data in Hypotheses 1 through 3; comparisons among means indicated by Hypotheses 4 through 6 were tested by a series of t tests for independent groups.

A sample of 300 children was used. All findings are based on personal interviews employing the Occupational Role Stereotype Scale and a questionnaire used in an informal approach. The results of the analysis of the research data are presented in Table 3.1.

The following hypotheses stated in null terms, were tested:

Hypothesis 1 There is no significant difference among the group mean scores of the six year old, eight year old, and ten year old children in their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

In Table 3.1, results show the main effect of age was significant ($F^2_{297} = 8.635$; $p < .01$), although it accounted for only about 5.5 percent of the total variance. Comparisons among the three means using Scheffe's procedure (Scheffe', 1959) indicated that

Table 3.1.--Analysis of research data.

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F	Proportion of Variance
Location	1	45.63	45.63	3.057	.0102
Age	2	246.81	123.40	8.635**	.0549
Sex	1	41.07	41.07	2.749	.0091
A x L	2	87.14	43.57	2.937	.0194
A x S	2	3.14	1.57	.104	.0007
L x S	1	1.763	1.763	.117	.0004
S x A x L	2	10.727	5.363	.355	.0024
Regression	11	436.277	39.6615	2.816**	.0971
Residual	288	4056.72	14.0858		
Total	299	4472.997			

** p .01

while there was no statistical difference between the means of the eight and six year olds, the mean of the ten year olds was found to be different from that of the two younger groups. The means, as shown in Table 3.2, include 12.26 for the six year old; 11.66, the mean for the eight year olds; and, a mean of 10.10 for the ten year olds.

Looking at specific occupations (Table 3.3), the least sex-typed were the occupations of the pharmacist and the check-out clerk in the grocery store, viewed by approximately 67-69 percent of the children as opposite of the stereotyped role or as a role

Table 3.2.--A comparison of the observed combined means scores for the age variable.

Age	Combined Means Score
6 year olds	12.26
8 year olds	11.66
10 year olds	10.10

that either sex could fill. Further analysis reveals notable age trends for several of the occupations. Fifty to 76 percent of the ten year olds viewed the occupations of gas station attendant, farmer, kindergarten teacher, executive, dentist, doctor, check-out clerk, and pharmacist in the nonsex-typed role. Four roles, that of dentist, doctor, check-out clerk, and pharmacist, were viewed as nonsex-typed by 50 to 72 percent of the eight year olds. Only three occupations were viewed in the nonsex-typed roles by 57 to 74 percent of the six year olds. These included the dentist, check-out clerk, and pharmacist.

The trend of the older child being more open to the various occupational roles may indicate that the children are viewing the occupations as roles that can be performed by members of both sexes. Also, more years experience could account for having seen the opposite sex in the role.

Hypothesis 2 There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of boys and of girls in their acceptance

Table 3.3.--Percent of responses to occupational roles. (N = 100 for each group)

Occupation	Role	6 year olds		8 year olds		10 year olds	
		Sex-typed Role	Nonsex-typed Role	Sex-typed Role	Nonsex-typed Role	Sex-typed Role	Nonsex-typed Role
Gas Station Attendant	M	60	40	56	44	49	51
Nurse	F	71	29	63	37	69	31
Farmer	M	80	20	67	33	47	53
Kindergarten Teacher	F	67	33	60	40	49	51
Executive	M	56	44	63	37	48	52
Secretary	F	61	39	84	16	74	26
Hairdresser	F	82	18	68	32	51	49
Truck Driver	M	85	15	82	18	66	34
Fire Fighter	M	88	12	91	9	84	16
Telephone Operator	F	58	42	55	45	56	44
Garbage Collector	M	82	18	83	17	79	21
Homemaker	F	94	6	86	14	83	17
Minister	M	89	11	80	20	63	37
Dentist	M	43	57	49	51	34	66
Doctor	M	73	27	50	50	46	54
Newscaster	M	70	30	62	38	51	49
Checkout Clerk	F	26	74	37	63	35	65
Pharmacist	M	41	59	28	72	24	76

of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

In analyzing the combined means score (Table 3.4), the boys' combined means score of 11.03 is lower than the girls' score of 11.65. The difference, was nonsignificant ($F^{1}_{298} = 2.749$); therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. As shown in Table 3.5, most children appeared to be conservative in their thinking, following closely society's expectations of occupational roles for men and for women. Except in a few cases, boys and girls tended to make similar kinds of role judgments.

The least sex-typed occupations as viewed by 53 to 69 percent of the subjects were that of dentist, checkout clerk, and pharmacist. The most sex-typed occupations were firefighter and homemaker. Eighty-six to 89 percent of the subjects viewed them in the traditional sex role. Five of the 18 occupations with a difference of 3 percent or less between the numbers of boys and of girls making similar kinds of role judgments ircluded the occupations of pharmacist, checkout clerk, newscaster, homemaker, and garbage collector.

Table 3.4.--A comparison of the observed combined means scores for the gender variable.

Gender	Combined Means Scores
Boys	11.03
Girls	11.65

Table 3.5.--Percent of responses to occupational roles. (N = 150 for each group)

Occupation	Role	150 Boys		150 Girls	
		Sex-typed Role	Nonsex-typed Role	Sex-typed Role	Nonsex-typed Role
Gas Station Attendant	M	52	48	58	42
Nurse	F	63	37	73	27
Farmer	M	63	37	67	33
Kindergarten Teacher	F	62	38	55	45
Executive	M	51	49	61	39
Secretary	F	75	25	71	29
Hairdresser	F	65	35	69	31
Truck Driver	M	75	25	80	20
Fire Fighter	M	88	12	87	13
Telephone Operator	F	53	47	60	40
Garbage Collector	M	80	20	83	17
Homemaker	F	86	14	89	11
Minister	M	75	25	80	20
Dentist	M	37	63	47	53
Doctor	M	53	47	60	40
Newscaster	M	61	39	61	39
Checkout Clerk	F	34	66	31	69
Pharmacist	M	31	69	31	69

Hypothesis 3 There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of children from rural and suburban schools in their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

In Table 3.6, the combined means score for the rural variable is 10.95 as compared with the combined means score for the suburban variable of 11.73. The difference, as shown in Table 3.1, was nonsignificant ($F^{1}_{298} = 3.057$); therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Children living in rural and suburban locations followed the traditional stereotypic views of accepting occupational roles for both men and for women.

Referring to Table 3.7, seven of the eighteen occupations are shown that had the least difference, varying no greater than two percent, between the number of rural children and of suburban children making similar kinds of role judgments. These included the occupations of nurse, kindergarten teacher, hairdresser, truck-driver, homemaker, dentist and doctor. Four of the occupations have a difference of ten percent or greater between the rural and suburban children making similar kinds of role judgments. Included are executive, garbage collector, minister, and newscaster. In each case the suburban child was sex-typing to a greater degree than the rural child.

Hypothesis 4 There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of children from one-parent families

Table 3.7.--Percent of responses to occupational roles. (N = 150 for each group)

Occupation	Role	150 Rural		150 Suburban	
		Sex-typed Role	Nonsex-typed Role	Sex-typed Role	Nonsex-typed Role
Gas Station Attendant	M	51	49	59	41
Nurse	F	68	32	67	33
Farmer	M	67	33	63	37
Kindergarten Teacher	F	59	41	58	42
Executive	M	51	49	61	39
Secretary	F	71	29	75	25
Hairdresser	F	68	32	66	34
Truck Driver	M	77	23	79	21
Fire Fighter	M	89	11	86	14
Telephone Operator	F	52	48	61	39
Garbage Collector	M	75	25	88	12
Homemaker	F	89	11	87	13
Minister	M	69	31	85	15
Dentist	M	41	59	43	57
Doctor	M	55	45	57	43
Newscaster	M	55	45	67	33
Checkout Clerk	F	30	70	35	65
Pharmacist	M	28	72	34	66

and children from two-parent families and their acceptance of occupational roles for both sexes as measured by the ORSS.

As observed in Table 3.8, the mean of 12.81 for children in one-parent family is 1.56 greater than the mean of 11.25 for children in two-parent families. The difference is nonsignificant, therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 3.8.--A comparison of the observed combined means scores for the one- and two-parent variable.

Number parents	Combined Means Score
1 parent	12.81
2 parents	11.25

Hypothesis 5 There is no significant difference between the group mean scores of children with mothers employed and children with mothers not employed outside the home and their acceptance of occupational roles as measured by the ORSS.

Referring to Table 3.9, children whose mothers are employ-part-time outside the home had the lowest mean, 10.39; the highest mean, 11.69, was that of children whose mothers were not employed. The difference is nonsignificant, therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 3.9.--A comparison of the observed combined means scores for non-, part-, and full time employed mothers outside of home.

Employed Away From Home	Combined Means Score
No	11.69
Part time	10.39
Full time	10.88

Hypothesis 6 There is no significant difference among the group mean scores of children and sibling order and their acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women as measured by the ORSS.

The combined means scores of the children of different sibling order are presented in Table 3.10. The differences of the scores are nonsignificant, therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

The variables of type of families, mothers employment away from home, and sibling order had no effect on the children's acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women. All followed the traditional stereotypic views.

Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data are:

1. The degree of stereotyping was high among all subjects. Children perceived occupations as the role of one sex or the other according to traditional stereotypic views.

Table 3.10.--A comparison of the observed combined means scores for children and sibling order.

Position in Family	Combined Means Score
1	11.52
2	11.10
3	11.12
4	11.71
5	9.36
6	13.57
7	15.33
8	11.00
9	12.33

2. Location, whether rural or suburban, had no significant effect upon the child's acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women.

3. The older the child is the more open s/he may be to accepting less sex-typed roles in occupations for men and for women.

4. The variables of mother's employment outside the home, one- or two-parent families, and sibling order had no significant effect upon the child's acceptance of occupational roles for men and for women.

Implications of the Study to Education

Interest in the study was positive. The school personnel and the parents of the children involved in the study received the proposal favorably, expressing a sincere interest.

But interest alone is not enough to bring about a change in the existing condition. Educators must be aware of how sexism is reinforced in the schools. Inservice training, relating to areas in which sex stereotyping prevails, i.e., teacher interaction, classroom organization and management, curriculum, staffing and administrative organization, and teacher beliefs, attitudes, and values, is an avenue through which educators may become more aware of, and consequenthly, act towards making necessary changes.

This study substantiates the research findings of the study done in 1975 (Scheresky).

Educators must realize how great the responsibility of the school is: whether it remains a force in perpetuating the stereotyping of sex roles or becomes a force in the elimination of stereotyping in our culture.

Additional research undertaken to study different age groups is seen as useful to determine to what degree, for example, the junior and/or senior high school individuals accept the occupational roles for men and for women.

Research undertaken using schools in which career education has been implemented into the curriculum, as compared to school's that have not had career education, could provide information a-

bout the amount of stereotyping that might be eliminated through the career education program of instruction.

The elementary school is the first setting beyond the family that includes the years when basic attitudes, perceptions, and skills are being developed. Schools can and should be the most powerful influence in readjusting the sexes to each other.

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